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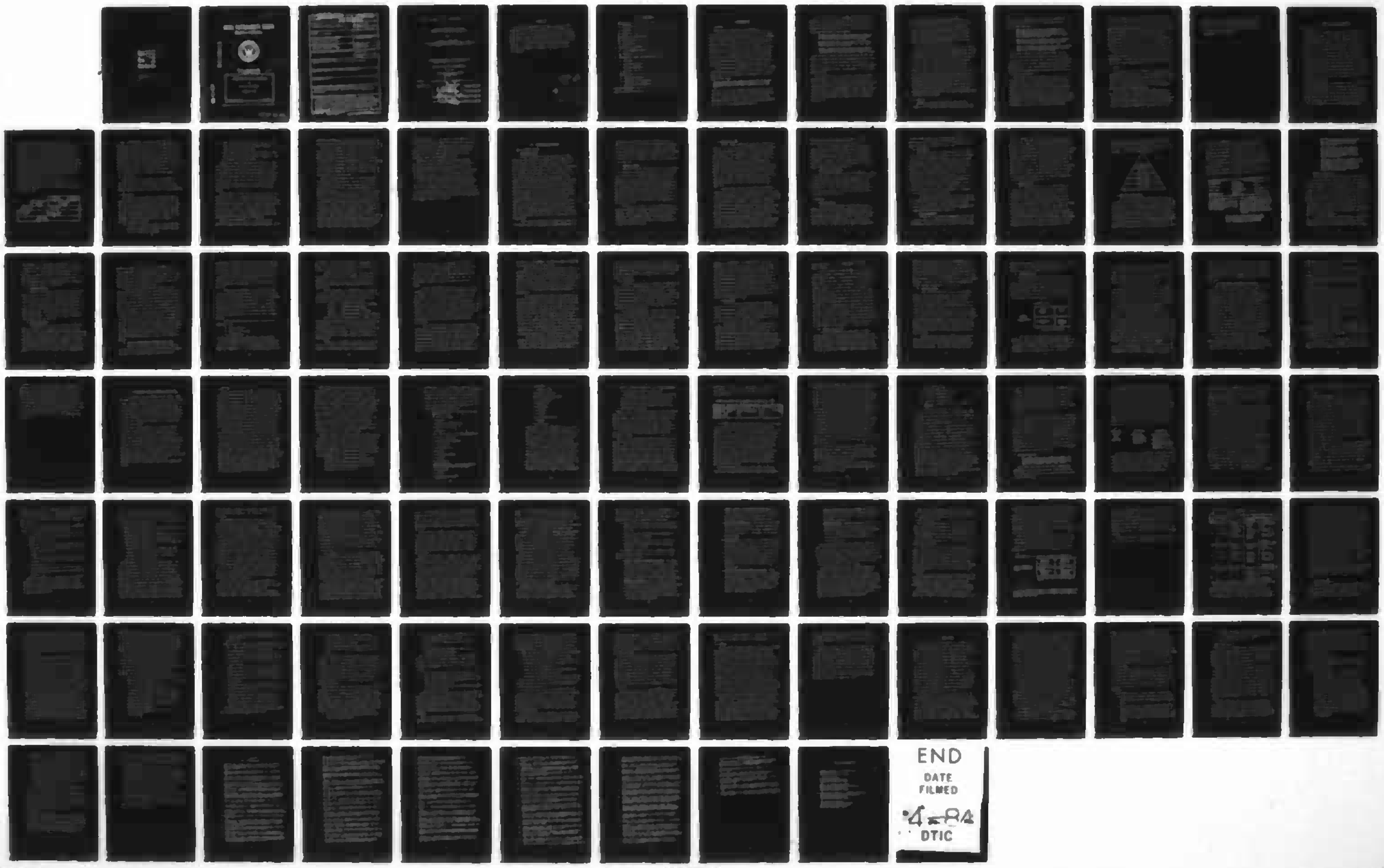

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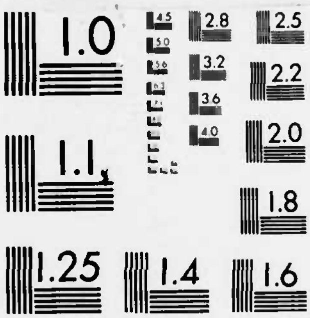
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WORKFORCE MOTIVATION IN 1983:
A REVIEW FOR DOD POLICY IMPLICATION

by

Dallas A. Bisignano

December 1983

Thesis Advisor: D. Whipple

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This thesis investigates the theories, strategies and techniques for productivity enhancement via increasing workforce motivation. It reviews previous research which explored the factors of employee morale and job satisfaction. Different perspectives of the concepts of motivation and productivity are offered. It considers contemporary employee motivational problems in management and suggests improvements for DOD consideration.

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Workforce Motivation in 1983:
A Review for DOD Policy Implication

by

Dallas A. Bisignano
Lieutenant, Medical Service Corps, United States Navy
B.S., Southern Illinois University, 1979

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Author:

Approved by:
Thesis Advisor

Second Reader

Chairman, Department of Administrative Science

K.T. Marshall
Dean of Information and Policy Sciences

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This thesis investigates the theories, strategies and techniques for productivity enhancement via increasing workforce motivation. It reviews previous research which explored the factors of employee morale and job satisfaction. Different perspectives of the concepts of motivation and productivity are offered. It considers contemporary employee motivational problems in management and suggests improvements for DOD consideration.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. INTRODUCTION ---------- 5
  A. OVERVIEW ---------- 5
  B. PROBLEM ---------- 7
  C. SCOPE ---------- 9
II. MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY ---------- 11
  A. PRODUCTIVITY ---------- 11
  B. MOTIVATION ---------- 13
III. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ---------- 17
  A. MAJOR RESEARCH STUDIES ---------- 17
  B. THEORIES ---------- 20
IV. CONTEMPORARY VIEWS IN WORKFORCE MOTIVATION ---------- 41
  A. THEORIES ---------- 42
  B. STRATEGY/TECHNIQUE ---------- 50
  C. PRACTICE/PROGRAMS ---------- 67
  D. SUMMARY ---------- 75
V. CONCLUSIONS ---------- 77
  A. DEVELOPING MODELS ---------- 80
  B. GENERATING NEW INFORMATION ---------- 81
  C. DISSEMINATING INFORMATION ---------- 82
LIST OF REFERENCES ---------- 84
INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST ---------- 90

I. INTRODUCTION

A. OVERVIEW

The potential of productivity enhancement efforts is gaining recognition in both the public and private sectors. Our nation has suffered due to high inflation, a high unemployment rate, and foreign competition. The current administration's efforts indicate a favorable future, but results are slow in coming. The U.S. economy is no longer the dynamic, invincible, and continuous world force it was in the 25 years following World War II. Our technological superiority and leadership now faces constant competition from other countries because foreign governments and industries are focusing attention on increasing productivity enhancement with alarming success.

A contributing factor to productivity decline is the change in American attitudes toward work. Daniel Yankelovich, a well known public opinion researcher, in an August 1979 Industry Week article, said:

> "People who work at all levels of enterprise, and particularly younger middle-management people, are no longer motivated to work as hard and as effectively as in the past."

Yankelovich's research indicates a decline in public belief, from 58% in 1960 to 43% in 1979, that "hard work always pays off." His studies reflect that only 13% of all working Americans find their work truly meaningful and more important to them than leisure-time pursuits [Ref. 1].

In 1979, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce sponsored a comprehensive survey of worker attitudes toward work productivity, and a wide range of employment conditions that influence worker attitudes and performance [Ref. 2]. Highlights from this report published in 1980 indicate:

1. Workers were optimistic about the ability of the U.S. to improve productivity and performance; expressed a willingness to work together with management.
2. Workers believed that if they were more involved in making decisions that affect their job, they would work harder and do a better job.
3. Workers suggested that motivation could be enhanced through recognition of their efforts and through consideration for better jobs and/or financial rewards.

One of the major findings drawn from the survey was that most workers expressed interest for the performance of their organizations. The survey results reflected a willingness among U.S. workers to work hard and do their best, but stressed the importance of recognition, reward, and involvement in the decision making process.

In recent years, convincing evidence indicates that many people simply do not want to work as hard any longer [Ref. 3]. The great degree of affluence that our country enjoyed for many years has given rise to a preoccupation with the self, self-indulgence and an increased emphasis on instant gratification and the pursuit of pleasure seeking activities. Associated with this "me generation" is a decline in the commitment to work [Ref. 4].

At one time, being unemployed was a personal catastrophe. Today, losing one's job may still be a major problem, but the event is considerably cushioned by liberal unemployment benefits, which are often supplemented by food stamps and other forms of governmental assistance. Professor Erwin S. Stanton of Columbia University indicates that the results of the welfare programs are weakened employee motivation and a decline in the will to work [Ref. 4].

As the first federal agency to establish a formal productivity program for the past 30 years, the Department of Defense has sustained a positive commitment to enhancing productivity in both the military and civilian components of its workforce. However, DOD has not gone unblemished by the problems and concerns facing the nation's population in the area of productivity decline. Though wages are at an all-time high, fringe benefits no longer deteriorating, and state-of-the-art equipment relieving tedious tasks and operations, workers are expressing increasing dissatisfaction with their jobs. This dissatisfaction can often lead to lower productivity. The DOD workforce tends to reflect the same needs and desires as the nation's population, and therefore it is important to examine methods for improvement. But before this can be done, a foundation must be layed.

B. PROBLEM

Department of Defense Instruction (DODI) 5010.34, August 4, 1975 "sets forth general operating guidelines and evaluation of productivity in the Department of Defense." Specifically, this instruction prescribed goals for the Head of each DOD component to:

1. Establish annual productivity improvement goals (preferably by type of support functions for Department/Agency) which are consistent with Planning and Programming Guidance issued by the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD).
2. Appropriately subdivide annual productivity improvement goals by major command and operating agency prior to the beginning of each fiscal year.
3. Advise the Secretary of Defense by October 31 of each year of the Department/Agency productivity improvement goals and the subdivision thereof.

With the reissuance of DOD Directive (DODD) 5010.31, April 27, 1979, DOD policy provided for the continuation of the DOD Productivity Program (DPP). This directive mandated a policy for DPP to include "a planned approach to Productivity Evaluation (PE)...(via) an aggressive and cohesive program of research and managemen efforts to improve workforce motivation and quality of worklife."

Both documents state that employee motivation is one of four basic ways to increase productivity. However, policy concerning workforce motivation is non-specific. A major effect of relegating nonspecific policy for increasing productivity via workforce motivation is the inconsistancy in interpreting and applying the results of motivational studies. Considering the various professional backgrounds and individual perspectives, the lack of a commonly accepted definition for productivity or motivation only compounds the problem.

Since the embryonic days of collective bargaining, some firms have seriously considered the human behavior aspects of labor in the production relationship [Ref. 5]. Management's use of motivational studies has repeatedly resulted in increased employee productivity [Ref. 6]. The common finding in the earlier sutdies resulted in a crude but relevant axiom - employees who "feel good, do good." However, recent studies limited this earlier belief [Ref. 1:7]. It has been found that employees can "do good," yet be very dissatisfied with their job and satisfied (happy) performers are not always productive.

The purpose of this thesis will be to investigate current methods of increasing workforce motivation for productivity enhancement, to assess current theories and management practices and to make recommendations having DOD policy implications.

C. SCOPE

This thesis will focus on strategies and techniques for increasing workforce motivation. This is primarily based on a comprehensive literature identification and review of relevant technical reports, research papers, magazine and journal articles, government publications, DOD official documents, books, and various unpublished papers.

Considering the definitional problem associated with motivation, Chapter II discusses a variety of perspectives for both productivity and motivation. Realizing the importance of earlier studies, Chapter III provides an historical background of Productivity Enhancement which gave rise to the recognition that motivation was a key factor for increasing productivity. Chapter IV explores contemporary consensus (1979-1983) beliefs and methods for increasing workforce motivation. The Conclusion contains a discussion of, and recommendations for, DOD policy.

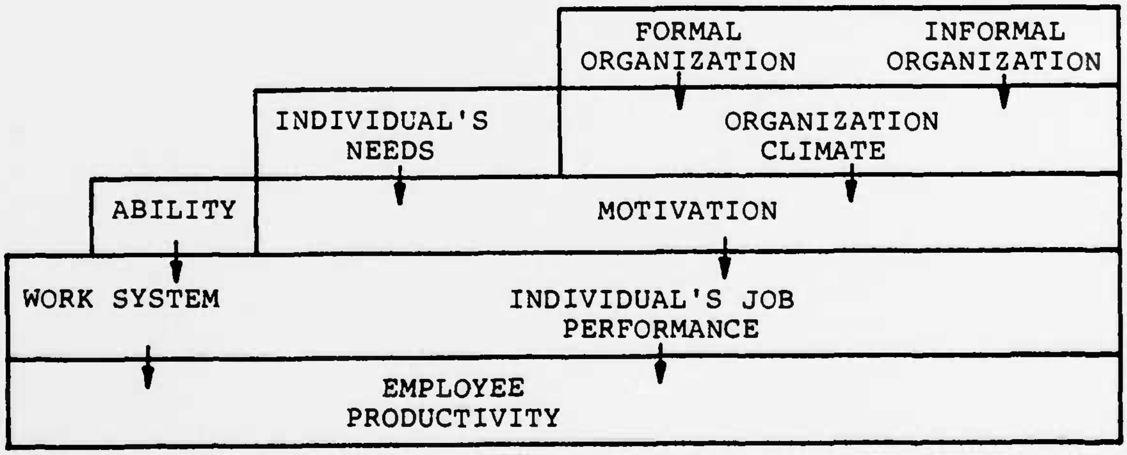
II. MOTIVATION AND PRODUCTIVITY

A. PRODUCTIVITY

Superficially, productivity seems to be a very simple, uncomplicated concept. The economist, industrial engineer, and manager each have their own view on productivity and on the factors which influence it. The economist usually focuses on product factors, measuring productivity in terms of input-output ratio in accordance with a standard. The industrial engineer directs his attention to the process factors, emphasing concern for work flow, equipment, measurement, and controls. He will commonly focus his efforts on job simplification (the way jobs are accomplished, etc.) through automation. Although the manager recognizes the importance of these two orientations, his primary concern is focused on the people factors, including worker motivation, job skills, and the quality of work life. The emphasis is on the people who are producing the needed goods and services.

In his book, PEOPLE AND PRODUCTIVITY, Robert A. Sutermeister defines productivity simply as "output per man per hour, quality considered" [Ref. 8]. If 20 units were produced by one man in one hour last month and 22 of the same quality units were produced by one man in one hour today, productivity has risen 10 percent. If 20 units were produced last month and 20 units of higher quality are produced today, productivity has also risen, although the measurement of it is more difficult. The output per man per hour results not from man's effort alone but results jointly from all the factors of production used: labor, management, money, machines, raw materials, etc. When productivity is expressed as output per man per hour, it is done only for convenience. Productivity might also be expressed in terms of output per $1000 invested, or output per 100 pounds of raw material, or output compared with any other factor. Sutermeister conceptualized a model in dart-board form of 33 factors affecting employees' job performance and productivity (the bull's eye).

Beaufort B. Longest, Jr. views productivity as a very complex concept but offers a simpler model depicting the major factors affecting employee production [Ref. 9]. His model is reproduced below.


FORMAL ORGANIZATION
INFORMAL ORGANIZATION
INDIVIDUAL'S NEEDS
ORGANIZATION CLIMATE
ABILITY
MOTIVATION
WORK SYSTEM
INDIVIDUAL'S JOB PERFORMANCE
EMPLOYEE PRODUCTIVITY

Employee productivity is directly influenced by the individual's job performance and the work system (the technical arrangements and facilities for work). The individual's job performance is directly affected by his or her ability (innate and learned abilities) and motivation. The motivation of the individual is directly affected by individual needs and the organizational climate (total environmental context in which the individual works) as it permits or prohibits him or her from fulfilling needs. The organizational climate is, in turn, influenced by both the formal and informal aspects of the organization.

As we progress it will be useful for the reader to gain an appreciation of the number of factors that affect an employee's productivity, the complexity of the motivation concept and how it relates to an individual's job performance.

B. MOTIVATION

The definition of motivation of an organisim refers to those factors that energize and regulate behavior directed toward achieving goals and satisfying needs [Ref. 10]. Even with its long and honorable history of theory and research, the concept of motivation is still one of the mort comprehensice and controversial in psychology. In order to avoid confusion, three other concepts basic to the subject of motivation should be defined:

1. A MOTIVE is a particular goal-oriented disposition or state of an organism. Examples: hunger, wanting to "do well", wanting to be liked.

2. A DRIVE is a state of arousal that has its origin in need or internal deficit. Examples: hunger pangs and feelings, need for achievement.
3. An INCENTIVE is a goal that provides stimuli toward which an organism may be motivated. Examples: food, high grades, friends and lovers.

A motive is a complex disposition of an organism. This means that we cannot see a motive or point at it as a thing; all we ever see directly is an organism's behavior. From this behavior we infer that certain dispositions, intentions or "motivational states" exist in the organism at particular moments in time. Thus, from a series of a person's actions directed toward a goal, such as his entering a restaurant, sitting down at a table, and ordering food, we infer his hunger.

From this point of view, some motives have a less debatable status than others. For example, few would argue with the contention that all of us are motivated by physiological needs or drives such as hunger and thirst, a need to sleep regularly, and the need to avoid pain. On the other hand, potential motives such as the need for achievement or the need to be with other people or a need for independence seem much more questionable and harder to put one's finger on.

Simply stated, INCENTIVES refer to opportunities or presence of some external stimuli that governs behavior. The

INCENTIVE HYPOTHESIS states that individuals differ in their relative sensitivity to internal drives and external incentives.

Motivation in general is a judgement based on impressions of the pattern of behavior of individuals, rather than on specific instances of their behavior. If the pattern of behavior conforms to some model, the individual is said to be "motivated." If the pattern does not conform, the individual is said to be "not motivated." People who come to work on time, who are rarely absent, who produce above-average work, are "motivated." People who are late, often absent, produce below average, are "not motivated."

However, one must recognize that the problem employee is not a person without motivation. When we say the person is "not motivated" we mean (but often forget) that he is not motivated to arrive on time, to have good attendance, to produce above-average. He is certainly motivated to do other things if he is a functioning human being. He is motivated to stay out late (which is why he can't get up on time). He is motivated to go hunting or fishing (so he doesn't turn up for work). Frequently, lack of motivation in one area is the consequence of motivation in a competing area. Another way to view motivation relates to whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic. People are motivated extrinsically or intrinsically. Extrinsic motivations are job behaviors that address the work outcomes which are derived from sources other than the work itself. These outcomes would, for example, be like an individual who works at a job because it gives him/her a lot of time off so that the individual may pursue other endeavors. Intrinsically motivated individuals gain their satisfaction from the work itself. This satisfaction can be viewed as benefits that are provided as part of the job, such as challenge, novelty and excitement [Ref. 11].

Motivation, then is essentially a comparative matter (motivated to do what, compared with what). The question is, how do people become well motivated in one area but less motivated in another area? The answer may lie in the outcome of activity in an area. It is not the logical outcome, or the probable outcome, or the promised outcome that counts. It is the historical outcome (what was the historical outcome of activity in the area the last time, and the time before that). If, for example, the outcome in the past was ridicule, or some other punishing event, then motivation to act in that area would be greatly diminished, regardless of the opportunities for pleasant outcomes in the future.

III. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

A. MAJOR RESEARCH STUDIES

1. Hawthorne Studies

A great researcher in the art of human relations, Elton Mayo, gained recognition from a series of experiments at the Hawthorne works of the Western Electric Company in Chicago between 1927 and 1932. The theory which evolved from these studies states that workers tend to cluster together into informal groups in order to fill a void in their lives. This void results from a basic need for cooperation and comradeship which modern industrial organizations had ignored. Further, he thought these informal groups could exert a far stronger pull on the worker's motivation than the combined strength of money, discipline, and even job security itself. Mayo's prescription was to cultivate improved communication so that management and workers, would at times, have a sympathetic insight into the minds of one another and to put supervision into the hands of men to whom a respect for their fellow man came naturally. Supervisors were to be trained in the skills of listening, understanding, and eliciting cooperation - a significant departure from the classical image of a "straw boss".

Human relations theory was not Mayo's invention, and his findings about the importance of informal groups came as no surprise to sociologists and other serious students of industry. Thus, his ideas had only a superficial acceptance, but the reason came a little later. Industry was too enthusiastic in accepting the notion that managers could be TRAINED to deal effectively with people. Training can't hurt, but unless the manager is properly motivated, training can't help, either [Ref. 12].

2. Michigan Studies

After World War II, the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan conducted a series of studies which focused on the attitudes and behavior of first-line supervisors and their impact on productivity of their subordinates. The technique employed generally identifies high- and low-producing groups of workers and then determines the attitudes of these groups and their supervisors toward various aspects of their work. The general finding was that the supervisor's style of operating and his ideas about his job have a fairly consistent relationship to the productivity of his group [Ref. 13].

Initially, it was believed that a definite right and wrong way to supervise existed, independent of the kinds of companys. However, the Michigan group discovered numerous exceptions to this general finding. They realized that though they discovered an important part of motivation, it was not the complete picture.

3. Prudential Study

In 1947, Rensis Likert and Daniel Katz conducted a study of the home office of the Prudential Insurance Company of America in Newark, New Jersey. The group came away with strong evidence that supervisory style affected group motivation and vice versa. Further as a consequence of this interaction, the most effective style from the standpoint of production was one which was more concerned with the employee's needs for attention and respect than with productivity itself. Hence, the term "employee-centered supervision" was coined [Ref. 14]. However, in reviewing the studies, Robert L. Kahn, noted that the most successful supervisor combined the employee-centered and production-centered orientations [Ref. 15].

Other studies indicated that production-centered supervision may, under certain conditions, have more than just a short-term advantage. Vroom and Mann found that, in necessarily closely knit groups, the main danger to morale and productivity is the possibility of dissension. Therefore, a democratic supervisor who can support the workers' egos and keep tempers in check would be more likely than any other to keep such a group on an even keel. On the other hand, where work is more of an individual matter the essential ingredient is not harmony but confidence that one knows what is really expected of him. Under such conditions, an authoritarian supervisor with a firm, no-nonsense attitude may be more likely than a democratic one to make expectations clear, and thereby to avoid confusion and recriminations [Ref. 16].

Vroom also uncovered evidence that the effects of supervision may considerably depend on the personality of the individual worker. His findings indicate that groups with strong independence drives perform best in a participative environment. Conversely, docile men who are accustomed to obedience and respect for their supervisor are more productive under authoritarian leadership [Ref. 17].

4. General Electric Study

Some indirect support for this idea comes from a study the General Electric Company conducted at one of its turbine and generator plants. At this plant consistency in the foreman's style of leadership seemed to carry more weight than the style itself. Their findings suggest that supervisory style has to be tailored to fit both the work being done and the workers who do it [Ref. 18].

B. THEORIES

1. Modified Theory

The foremost interpreter of the Michigan studies is Rensis Likert, a psychologist who headed the Institute for Social Research. His ideas on how management ought to deal with people evolved into what he called a "modified theory" of organization and management [Ref. 19]. Rather than a radical change of attitudes, Likert proposed a reinterpretation of some orthodox ideas on how businesses should be run. In essence, he said that damage to the morale or motivation of its human assets must be counted as a loss - and a serious one.

2. Linking Pin

To Likert, the root of productivity is the motivation of the individual worker, and he set out to design an organization in which the individual can enjoy a sense of importance and influence. His desire was to design organizations in a more decentralized form without eliminating the hierarchical structure. Thus, he developed the "Linking Pin Design of Organizational Structure and Managerial Role" [Ref. 20]. He suggests that the key to linking the individual's most potent aspirations to the goals of his company is his membership in a group which participates in its own management - a group in which the role of the supervisor is changed from that of an enforcer or overseer to that of an expediter, an information giver, and above all an ego supporter.

(In another similar study, Zaleznik and his co-workers at the Harvard Business School concluded that group membership or reward by the group was a major determinant of worker productivity and satisfaction, while reward by management had no noticeable motivation effect) [Ref. 21].

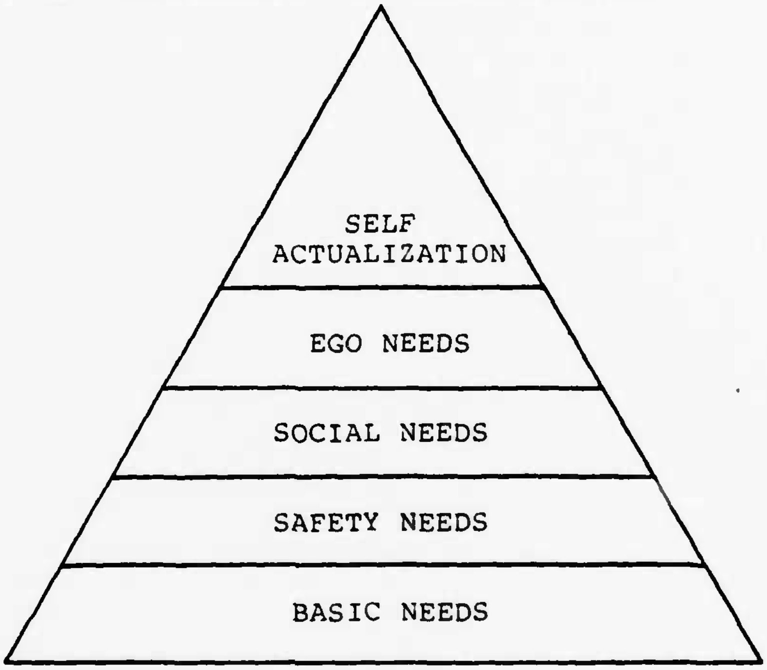
3. Operant Behavior

In 1948, B. F. Skinner wrote Walden Two, novel about a utopian community designed and maintained according to his principles of operant behavior and schedules of reinforcement

[Ref. 22]. According to Skinnerian theory and research, the way to control behavior is to reinforce the desirable behavior positively and, after the "shaping process", to reinforce the behavior only occassionally. Shaping, the process of successive approximations to reinforcement, is the first phase of learned behavior. An attempt should be made to ignore undesirable behavior and not to punish (unless society must be protected) but, rather, to spend time positively shaping the desired behavior [Ref. 23;24]. (Skinnerian principles were successfully applied in an industrial situation in the Emery Air Freight case in 1973. Based on numerous research findings, Emery quickly realized an annual savings of $650,000 by application of the Skinnerian principles [Ref. 25].

4. Need Hierarchy

The most widely referred to motivation theory is the "hierarchy of needs" by Maslow. The "father of humanist psychology" (study of behaviors that have the effect of benefiting another), he perceived human needs in the form of a hierarchy, in an ascending order from the lowest to the highest. He concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, it ceases to be a motivator. The basic human needs he identified are: physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualization [Ref. 26]. Most people operate somewhere in the middle between the social and ego needs. In management terms this means that if people are treated fairly and with dignity (a social need) and given an opportunity to prove their worth (an ego need), they will gradually near self-fulfillment and therefore, become self-motivated. The manager who can create such a work environment will find most of the individuals self-motivated. His model follows:



5. Two-Factor Need Theory

One of the most sophisticated studies from the post World War II era in the field of work motivation was conducted by Herzberg and his colleagues at the Psychological Service of Pittsburg [Ref. 27]. This work provided further insight into the nature of human motivation in the form of his two factor theory of motivation which is based on two sets of conditions that affect a man at work. He designated one set "MAINTENANCE" or "HYGIENE" factors and the other, "MOTIVATIONAL" factors. These factors are conditions on the job which relate to employee dissatisfaction and satisfaction. The factors in the first set, hygiene, will not motivate people in an organization. Yet, they must be present or dissatisfaction will arise. The second set, motivational (or the job-content) factors, are the real motivators because they have the potential of yielding a sense of satisfaction. Clearly, if this theory of motivation is sound, managers must give considerable attention to upgrading job content, i.e., they set the "climate" of the organization. Beaufort B. Longest [Ref. 9] offers the following model of the Herzberg "Motivation-Hygiene" theory.

SATISFIERS	DISSATISFIERS	
-Achievement	-Working Conditions	-Policy & Admin
-Recognition	-Possibility of Growth	-Salary
-Work Itself	-Interpersonal Relations	-Job Security
-Responsibility	-Status	-Personal Life
-Advancement	-Supervision	

MOTIVATION	HYGIENE
Satisfiers lead to increased performance as they focus on growth-approach needs. Thus, motivation potential is high for most people.	Dissatisfiers lead to decreased performance. If provided for, these factors satisfy our maintenance-avoidance needs. Motivational potential is low for most people, but hygenic potential (avoiding discontent) is high.

1. Those factors which contribute to job satisfaction and those that contribute to job dissatisfaction are separate sets: SATISFIERS and DISSATISFIERS.

2. The dissatisfiers provide for our animalistic or avoidance needs while the satisfiers accommodate our approach or humanistic needs.
3. The dissatisfiers are more related to the conditions of work than the work itself, thus have little motivational potential for most people; however, their presence is necessary to prevent on-the-job problems.
4. Therefore, the provision of hygenic needs (dissatisfiers) prevents decreases in job performance but will not increase the performance; to move to increase job performance typically requires meeting the potential dissatisfiers and then moving to the satisfiers.

6. Theory X and Theory Y

By 1960, Douglas McGregor articulated his concept of the "Theory X and Theory Y" manager [Ref. 28]. The essence of his proposition is that there are two theoretical assumptions under which managers deal with subordinates. The traditional assumption, Theory X, is that the average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can. He prefers to be directed, avoids responsibility, has little ambition and wants security above all. Because of this human characteristic, the worker must be controlled, coerced, and threatened in order to get him to make an adequate effort. McGregor throught of Theory X as a "Carrot-Stick" management, and not a good way to manage.

In its place McGregor suggested Theory Y, which holds that working is as natural as playing or resting, and that, therefore people want to work and achieve. Thus the average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility and that the intellectual potentialities of the average worker were only partially utilized. In Theory Y, external control and the threat of punishment are not the only ways to bring about effort. "Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed."

7. Competence Motive

Robert W. White argued that one of the mainsprings of human motivation is an interest in getting to know what the world is like and in learning to get what one wants from it. White noted that people want to understand and manipulate their physical environment (and, later, their social environment, too). In the broadest sense, they like to be able to make things happen - to create events rather than merely to await them passively. White calls this desire for mastery "the competence motive" [Ref. 29].

8. Affiliation Needs

The importance of affiliative needs was stressed by Mayo in condemning the impersonal factory system, and the growth of labor unions demonstrated the pronounced consequences a tendency to group together can have. Yet the existence of an affiliation motive had been taken for granted until Stanley Schachter directed serious scientific attention to it [Ref. 30]. It was generally assumed that affiliation could be either a means to an end or an end in itself. That is, people might seek the company of others in order to gain some kind of common impersonal reward such as money, favors, or protection; or they might socialize simply because they enjoy it. It was this latter kind that Schachter concerned himself: the desire to be with other people regardless of whether anything but company was apparently gained thereby.

From Schachter's work emerged a somewhat clearer understanding of why men sometimes form groups which have the effect of lowering productivity. The group itself is defensive in nature. It is a means of creating an artificial, miniature world in which the things that are lacking in the real workday world (pride, importance, security) are reproduced on a smaller scale. The impulse to create such a group is touched off by the sense of impotence one feels when he becomes dependent on a system that is by no means dependent on him. In other words, it is the lack of control over one's working environment which drives so many working people into informed work-restricting groups. this lack of control is engineered into the system by excessively simplifying and rationalizing the flow of work and is compounded by excessive supervisor control and by lack of effective communication between managers and the people they manage.

9. Needs for Achievement, Affiliation, and Power

Shortly after World War II, McClelland of Harvard University led a group of psychologists through an intensive analysis of the achievement motive. Their conclusion contradicted the classical theorists notion of the "economic man" and profit motive. He made a strong case for concluding that the profit motive (at least as it acts as an incentive for the highly achievement oriented individual) ought to be reinterpreted: The lure of profit is that of an objective measure of success in accomplishing a difficult task and not one of making the most money for the least risk and effort [Ref. 31].

McClelland put his theory to the test by measuring levels of achievement among executives in several countries. The results indicated that the higher the level of achievement motivation, the more likely the executive is to rise to positions of greater power and responsibility. The really intriguing part of this finding is that it seems to hold true regardless of how "developed" or "underdeveloped" a country may be, and even regardless of the country's free or communist economy.

McClelland identified three types of basic motivation needs [Ref. 32]:

1. Need to achieve
2. Need for affiliation
3. Need for power

He found that people with a high need to achieve tend to (1) seek and assume high degrees of personal responsibility; (2) take calculated risks; (3) set challenging but realistic goals for themselves; (4) develop comprehensive plans to help them achieve their goals; (5) seek and use measurable feedback; and (6) seek out business opportunities where their desire to achieve will not be thwarted.

People with affiliation needs, on the other hand, seek to find warm relationships and friendship. They are not as concerned as the "higher achievers" with getting ahead, but rather, they enjoy jobs that have many interactions with other people.

In the last decade, he devoted much of his research to a better understanding of a person's need for power [Ref. 33]. He postulated that there are four distinct stages in the development of a person's orientation to power:

STAGE I - INCORPORATION OF POWER FROM OTHERS
STAGE II - INDEPENDENT POWERFULNESS
STAGE III - POWER AS AN IMPACT ON OTHERS
STAGE IV - DERIVING POWER FROM A HIGHER AUTHORITY

Stage I, which is experienced even in infancy, involves incorporating power from another person (from a source of power outside oneself). Early in life this feeling of strength comes from parents and later it may come from friends, a spouse, or an admired leader or mentor. Thus, by experiencing or sharing the power of a stronger person, the individual self feels powerful.

Stage II is independence of the self. As the person learns self-control, a degree of powerful feeling usually occurs, or in McClelland's words "I can strengthen myself."

His research shows that a major expression of this stage later in life is possession of objects that one experiences as part of the self. These expressions are usually power-related, such as a powerful or high-status automobile, guns, and even credit cards. As an extension of the self, the possession of powerful things facilitates the feeling of power.

Stage III describes the competitive behavior that is intended to win and another less readily apparent form, helping behavior. As McClelland puts it, "in accepting...help, the receiver can be perceived as acknowledging that he is weaker, (at least in this respect) than the person who is giving him help" [Ref. 33:18]. Research by Winter and McClelland shows that a significant number of teachers behave predominantly according to this Stage III helping orientation [Ref. 34;35]. It is likely, also, that many therapists and consultants operate extensively at this stage of power-orientation development.

The final stage, Stage IV, is deriving power from a higher authority and doing one's duty accordingly. McClelland has found that many people satisfy their power motivation by joining organizations in which they subordinate personal goals to a higher authority [Ref. 33:20]. At this stage the need for power (though not exclusively altruistic) is largely socialized and institutionalized, rather than personal. At Stages II and III, the motivation for power is primarily for purposes of aggrandizement. In Stage IV, power is sought more for the good of the organized effort.

Each stage has an implied relationship to maturity, and pathological behavior may be manifested at any of the stages: in Stage I, if the person feels totally controlled by outside forces; in Stage II, if the person is compulsive about trying to control everything; in Stage III, if the person tries to control others regardless of values or ethics; and in Stage IV, if the person has a martyrdom or messianic disposition.

McClelland related his theories and research more directly to management by empirically documenting that more successful managers have a stronger need for power than less successful managers [Ref. 36]. He discounts the popular misconception that a good manager has a high need to achieve. Having a high need to achieve means that one wants to do things oneself. Self-accomplishment is paramount, and the ability to do something better than others can or better than one did it before is most gratifying. In contrast, effective management means that a person's needs are satisfied by seeing OTHERS achieve. The greatest satisfaction comes from influencing others to achieve, not from achieving the task oneself.

Using subordinate's ratings of their organizations' degree of clarity and amount of team spirit as indices of successful management, McClelland and Burnham found that, if a manager was high in power motivation, low in need for affiliation, and high in inhibition (that is, the power need was socialized, mature and not expressed for self-aggrandizement), the organization's degree of clarity was greater, subordinates knew the goals and what was expected of them, and the team spirit was higher.

10. Expectancy

Victor H. Vroom developed his thoughts on motivation and published them in an important work in 1964 [Ref. 37]. To Vroom, motivation is a process governing choices. A person weighs the likelihood that a particular behavior or performance will enable him to get closer to a pre-established goal successfully (motivation=expectancy X valence). If he thinks or EXPECTS that a particular act will be successful, he is likely to select that type of behavior.

His preference-expectation theory is more an explanation of the motivation phenomenon (a process) than it is a description of what motivates (the content theories of Maslow and Herzberg). Vroom's theory explains how two variables (preference and expectation) work to determine motivation. PREFERENCE, in this mode, refers to the possible outcomes that an individual might experience as the result of any activity. If, for example, a clerk in the business office files more documents than any other clerk, she may receive higher pay, get a promotion, impress her supervisor, or make her co-workers jealous. Many other outcomes are possible, including the possibility that nothing will happen. The clerk clearly has a PREFERENCE. The other part of the model, EXPECTANCY, is the individual's expectation that a desired outcome will happen. An individual with a preference for an outcome must also feel that he can achieve the outcome by doing certain things. The importance of the Vroom model is that it emphasizes the fact that motivation as a process is an individual thing. It depends upon the individual having a specific, preferred outcome, coupled with a belief or expectation that certain activities or behavior will bring about the desired outcome. Thus, this theory of motivation has been labeled the "EXPECTANCY" model.

11. Force Field

A notable theorist within the scope of behavior sciences, Kurt Lewin, identified behavior as a function of a person's personality, discussed primarily in terms of motivation or needs, and the situation or environment in which the person is acting. The environment is represented as a field of forces that affect the person [Ref. 38].

Lewin made a distinction between imposed or induced forces, those acting on a person from the outside, and own forces, those directly reflecting the person's needs. For induced or imposed goals to be accomplished by a person, the one who induced them must exert continuous influence or else the person's other motives, not associated with goal accomplishment, will likely determine his or her behavior. This aspect of Lewin's theory helps to explain the generally positive consequences of participative management and consensual decision making.

Another distinction made by Lewin regarding various forces in a person's environment is the one between DRIVING and RESTRAINING forces. He noted that the perceived status quo in life is just that - a perception. In reality, albeit psychological reality, a given situation is a result of a dynamic, rather than a static, process. The process flows from one moment to the next, with ups and downs, and over time gives the impression of a static situation, but there actually are some forces pushing in one direction and other, counterbalancing forces that restrain movement. The level of productivity in an organization may appear static, but sometimes it is being pushed higher (by the force of supervisory pressure, for example) and sometimes it is being restrained or even decreased by a counterforce (such a norm of the work group). There are many different counterbalancing forces in any situation, and what is called a "force-field analysis" is used to identify the two sets of forces [Ref. 39;40].

12. Worker Satisfaction

The work of Hackman and Oldham [Ref. 41;42;43] incorporates both the need theory and expectancy theory in a work design model. This model is more restrictive in that it focuses on the relationship between job or work design and worker satisfaction. Although their model frequently leads to what is called job enrichment, as does the application of

Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory, the Hackman and Oldham model has broader implications. Briefly, they contend that there are three primary psychological states that significantly affect worker satisfaction: (1) experienced meaningfulness of the work itself, (2) experienced responsibility for the work and its outcomes, and (3) knowledge of results, or performance feedback. The more that work is designed to enhance these states, the more satisfying the work will be.

13. Espoused Theory

Since the early 60s, Chris Argyris has developed a number of mini-theories, whose relationships and possible overlap are not always apparent [Ref. 44]. His recent attention concerns the gaps in people's behavior between what they say (espoused theory) and what they actually do (theory in action). People may say that they believe that McGregor's Theory Y assumptions about human being are valid, for example, but they may act according to "Pattern A". Pattern A behaviors are characterized as predominantly intellectual rather than emotional, conforming rather than experimenting, individually oriented rather than group-oriented, involving closed rather than open communication, and generally mistrusting rather than trusting.

Argyris argues that people who become more aware of these gaps between their stated beliefs and demonstrated behavior, will be more motivated to reduce the differences, to be more consistent. In one specific project, Argyris tape-recorded managerial staff meetings, analyzed the recorded behaviors, and then showed the managers where that their actions were not consistent with their words [Ref. 45].

14. Managerial Grid

Two professors, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton wrote Managerial Grid" in 1978 [Ref. 46]. The book is a compilation of the managerial theories put forth and a new way to judge manager styles, showing ways to motivate personnel through leadership. Blake and Mouton refer to five styles of leadership in terms of a grid that uses X/Y coordiantes, X being concern for personnel and Y being concern for the task.

MANAGERIAL GRID

CONCERN
FOR
PRODUCTIVITY

(1,9) COUNTRY CLUB	(9,9) TEAM
IMPOVERISHED (1,1)	AUTHORITY OBEDIENCE (9,1)

CONCERN FOR EMPLOYEES

The first of the five styles is the lowest in the managerial styles. This manager "Impoverished Management" not only doesn't accomplish the task, but has little concern for those personnel assigned under him. This manager is rated as incompetent, and is located at point (1,1) on the grid.

At one end of the grid is the task oriented manager "Authority-obedience" who is located at point (9,1). He has little concern for personnel and feels the task is the only thing of importance. This individual is similar to the Theory X manager, and their theory implies that he will more than likely fail in the long run as a manager.

At the other end of the grid is the (1,9) "Country Club" manager, who has the greatest concern for his personnel and rate the task as secondary. His personnel are usually content, but the motivation to produce towards an assigned goal is lacking. This manager usually fails more rapidly than the (9,1) manager because of upper level management being able to recognize the shortfalls in output more rapidly.

The middle-of-the-road manager "Organization Man" at point (5,5) is more difficult to recognize. He has some concern for his personnel and some concern for the task at hand. This manager motivates in a half hearted manner. He is usually the manager who puts in his regular day and accomplishes an average amount of work. The personnel under him are not for or against him and he appears on the surface to accomplish the task at hand. He is what Blake and Mouton term the "survivor". This manager will probably not advance, but also will not be demoted, he is the average run-of-the-mill manager.

Finally, Blake and Mouton set the parameters of the top manager "Team Management", (at point (9,9)). This is the type manager who under Maslow's or McGregor's systems would rank at the top. He is a motivator of personnel, accomplishing the task to the fullest. He is the ideal manager which will succeed to positions of greater responsibility, from the ranks of the personnel under this manager are grown additional managers who have the basic managerial training to also be successful.

15. Job Enlargement, Enrichment and Redesign

Many theorists have tried to increase intrinsic motivation by increasing satisfaction through job redesign. Frederick W. Taylor, Father of scientific managment, dealt with selecting, training and compensating employees, designing the employee's job and tools, and assigning management the responsibility for taking initiative that was previously vested with the employee [Ref. 47]. Time and motion studies were performed to discover and set down standards for exact employee behavior. In essence, all employees were required to perform the same job and use the same techniques and procedures. Work was simplified and standardized to conserve time, money and energy. However, there are consequences that are associated with work standardization and simplification [Ref. 48]. Monotony, loss of or inhibiting the development of skills and loss of individuality are but a few.

Work designed to be efficient and productive for the employer may have costs associated with worker dissatisfaction, i.e., absenteeism, restrictive output or high rates of turnover. Increased study in the area of worker satisfaction and productivity has led to techniques of job enlargement, job enrichment, and job redesign.

Job enlargement is the horizontal expansion of job content to include a wide variety of tasks. This includes the responsibility for checking the quality and adds discretion in use of a particular method. Although the studies in job enlargement seemed to be weak, positive results have been reported [Ref. 47].

Job enrichment refers to the designing of tasks to permit a degree of autonomy and variety in the activities. This design approach was made popular in the 1960's for its motivational benefits [Ref. 49]. However, task design should be based on more than its anticipated effects on individual motivation. The macro perspective requires examination of other contingencies for task design [Ref. 50]. It also requires that we design roles with an appreciation of how several roles relate to one another, for example, the linking pin theory previously discussed.

Work redesign to increase worker satisfaction through work humanization is the main thrust of job enrichment [Ref. 51]. Work redesign enhances the individual's personal growth needs in terms of what he can learn, what he can accomplish, and how he can develop [Ref. 52].

Most people have their own pet theories about what makes other people tick. Mayo assumed that men had a natural tendency to form allegiances with each other and to cluster together in mutually protective groups. Likert assumed that workers feel a sense of responsibility for their work and are therefore frustrated when they cannot share in the authority that controls it. Herzberg assumes that the need to master one's vocational role takes precedence over other needs, at least for people whose elementary needs are already taken care of. Others believe that the private motives that people bring to the work environment are the sources for increasing productivity. The next chapter will present contemporary views of motivation.

IV. CONTEMPORARY VIEWS IN WORKFORCE MOTIVATION

In one sense motivational models are very common. Adam probably had some explanation for Eve's behavior in the Garden of Eden; Cain had some explation for Abel's behavior; and so on through the ages. There are motivational models that find their foundations in religious thoughts or in the statements of philosophers. The ideas presented in the previous chapter are still discussed in the business literature and serve as the roots for the theories, strategies and techniques that follow in this chapter.

The thrust of this chapter is in increased workforce motivation through enhanced quality-of-work-life for all employees. The first section will discuss recent theories that suggest a different perspective for understanding motivation. The second section contains strategies and techniques for improving workforce motivation. Section IV.C offers a discussion of ways to put the various strategies and techniques into practice and developing programs. Given that implementing any strategy or technique is a change, the Summary discusses the change process and the currently accepted Organization Development practice for implementing change.

A. THEORIES

Locke, a psychologist and professor at the University of Maryland, estimated that over four thousand motivation-related articles and dissertations have been produced (in the past 30 years) and the number is rising yearly [Ref. 53]. Contemporary theories of motivation can be loosely divided into two basic categories, content theories and process theories (Wynn, 1981). Content theories identify needs as important motivating forces. Maslow's Needs Hierarchy Theory and its development by Herzberg into the Two Factor Theory of job satisfaction are the most notable content theories. Fulfilling individual needs is the one thread that ties most theories of motivation together.

Process theories try to account for the process by which variables such as expectations, needs, and values interact with the job characteristics to produce individual motivation. They can be divided into three basic groups. First, Expectations and Equity theories argue that motivation occurs when the rewards received for work effort equitably compare with those of others. The theory involves considering individual expectations in relation to job satisfaction. Second, Reference Group theory takes into account the way in which one refers to other individuals in deciding what is equitable. Finally, Needs and Value Fulfillment theories describe motivation in terms of the discrepancy between the individual's needs and values, and what the job has to offer [Ref. 54].

These theories individually contributed to a general understanding of motivation. They are not mutually exclusive because they tend to focus on different aspects of the issues involved. Since the theories are not separate and compartmentalized, it is difficult for researchers to conduct empirical studies which exclusively support one or the other. However, Locke recently attempted to tie all these theories together with a new theory. He argues that both Maslow's hierarchy of needs and McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y are outdated [Ref. 55]. In a close examination of the elements, he found numerous unanswered questions and contradictions which suggested "the need for a new approach to the subject of work motivation." He calls this new approach "THEORY V" because it is based primarily on the concept of VALUES.

Theory V consists of six major propositions which represent a summary and integration of what is known about work motivation based on several decades of theorizing and research by numerous investigators. These propositions do not specify every known phenomenon or finding in the area of work motivation; rather they identify broad essentials which are posited as the foundations for a "more complete" theory.

> * PROPOSITION 1. People are motivated at root by needs, but their specific choices and actions are motivated by values (Locke perceives values as the link between needs and actions).

* PROPOSITION 2. If an individual attains the values he or she wants at work, job satisfaction is experienced, if not, job dissatisfaction results. An employee will exhibit a high level of motivation to work or produce only if that is required in order to attain these values. Under this proposition, Locke lists what he calls "generally held job values":

1. Work. In the realm of the work itself, most employees value:

   ** interesting work

   ** success

   ** growth and responsibility

   ** goal or role clarity

   ** feedback

2. Pay. In the realm of pay most employees want:

   ** fairness and equity

   ** enough to meet expenses

   ** job security

   ** fringe benefits

3. Promotions

   ** fairness or equity

   ** clarity

   ** availability

4. Working Conditions. People want working conditions which entail or promote:

   ** convenience

   ** safety

   ** facilitation of work

5. Co-workers
    ** similar values
    ** work facilitation
6. Supervision and Leadership
    ** consideration
    ** recognition
    ** competence
    ** fairness
    ** honesty
7. Organizational Policies
    ** respect
    ** competence

* PROPOSITION 3. The fundamental value which an organization can offer employees in return for their efforts is *money*, because money is instrumental in satisfying (directly or indirectly) all of their needs, including so called higher level needs.

* PROPOSITION 4. To effectively direct and mobilize the effort an individual is willing to put forth in return for money, the organization must ensure that employees strive for clear and challenging goals.

* PROPOSITION 5. To motivate employees to bring to bear maximum knowledge when implementing goals, they must be allowed and encouraged to use their own judgement (within the context of their knowledge and

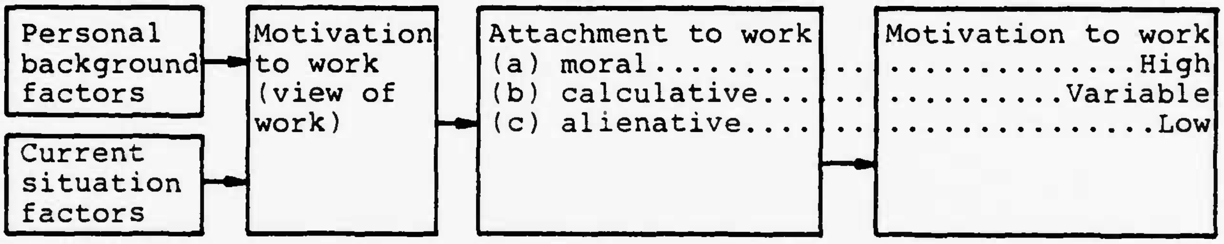
skill) and held responsible (e.g., through feedback) for the consequences of their decisions.

* PROPOSITION 6. Social relationships and incentives can have a powerful impact on employee morale and motivation but all must be used with utmost care because they can work both against as well as for organizational interests.

Theory V offers a composite explanation of how individual's are motivated to act, i.e., relating needs and values to job accomplishment. Locke suggested a number of techniques that impact on motivation like incentives, goals, performance evaluations and participative decision-making. His notion of the needs-values-actions relationship suggest that values are the link between an individual's motivation to work and motivation at work.

Wynn, a British psychologist, draws a conceptual difference between the motivation TO WORK and the motivation AT WORK. He suggests that an individual's motivation at work derives from his motivation to work, while his motivation to work derives from the view of work that he holds [Ref. 52]. This view of work will be the product of a number of factors (including national and local culture, educational experiences, family background and past and present work experiences). He further contends that the individual's view of work will influence the basis of his attachment to work. His final contention is that attachment to work will influence behavior at work; and by formulating the relationship in this way, he developed the following model:

ALTERNATIVE SOCIAL ACTION FRAMEWORK AND BEHAVIOR AT WORK


Personal background factors
Current situation factors
Motivation to work (view of work)
Attachment to work
(a) moral.........
(b) calculative...
(c) alienative....
Motivation to work
..............High
..........Variable
...............Low

Wynn suggests adopting a three-stage process for operationalizing the model. The first stage should be a quantitative analysis of relevant material relating to absenteeism, lateness, productivity, etc. The purpose of this quantitative analysis would be the classification of individuals according to their motivation at work and from this classification the basis of their attachment to work can be inferred. The second stage should concern itself with exploring and identifying the meaning that work has for these individuals therey classifying the nature of their motivation to work. Finally, attempts should be made to identify factors that may be important in shaping individual's motivations to work and, through this, their motivation at work.

From a management perspective, Wynn's model allows distinctions to be made between groups of workers who are highly motivated at work and groups who are not so highly motivated. It also offers the prospect of identifying factors which are important in shaping motivations to and, thereby, motivation at work. Once these factors have been identified the possibility arises of making practical and empirically based suggestions about motivation at work. These suggestions may be of two kinds. On the other hand, if motivation at work is found to be related to internal environmental factors then organization and job design become the relevant focus; on the other hand, if motivation at work is found to be related to external environmental factors, then selection and recruitment becomes the relevant area of interest. But, whatever the case, the value of formulating and operationalizing the model on the lines suggested is that both the study and management of motivation can be treated as a very real and quantifiable aspect of productivity enhancement. This model offers an understanding of the relationship between the Japanese culture and their work ethic.

In recent years, much attention has been given to the Japanese style of management and the high productivity rates enjoyed by their firms. A number of studies indicate that Japanese management considers the human factors most important in their firm's productivity [Ref. 57].

In a study conducted by Ouchi and his colleagues [Ref. 58] seven key characteristics of Japanese firms were identified in several successful U.S. firms:

1. Long-term employment
2. Slow evaluation and promotion
3. Moderately specialized careers
4. Consensual decision making
5. Individual responsibility
6. Implicit, informaal control (but with explicit measures)
7. Wholistic concern for the employee

Ouchi calls these firms "Theory Z" organizations. These organizations share several features with those of Japan that are aimed at improving the Quality-of-Work-Life (QWL). QWL is that relationship between the employee and his working environment. Basically, it is a generic phrase that covers a person's feelings about every dimension of work including economic rewards and benefits, security, working conditions and organizational interpersonal relationships. It is also a process by which an organization attempts to unlock the creative potential of its people by involving them in decisions affecting their work lives. Hatvany and Pucik identified differences in the two managment styles [Ref. 59]. In U.S. firms, responsibility is definitely individual, measures of performance are explicit and careers are actually moderately specialized. However, Ouchi offers little about communication patterns in these organizations or the role of the work group [Ref. 57]. The question one might ask is whether the Japanese can successfully operate U.S. firms and enjoy the same high productivity rates as firms in Japan.

Richard G. Novotny [Ref. 60] surveyed 100 American employees in Japanese-owned companies across the nation. He concluded that Japanese companies rank highly with their American employees in personal involvement and, to a lessor extent, in compensation and job security. Americans are responding favorably to their style of management as reflected by higher productivity and lower turnover rates than their U.S. counterparts.

On the negative side, a major problem cited by the employees was a lack of cultural understanding between Japanese managers and American workers, which was most evident in the language barrier. Several of the companies, such as trading companies and freight forwarders, try to hire Japanese-speaking Americans wherever possible. But others, such as manufacturing and marketing organizations, do not actively seek Japanese-speaking employees. Only one percent of the Americans employed at the Japanese firms speak, write, or read Japanese. Novotny's results offer a good case for successfully applying Japanese management style to American employees.

B. STRATEGY/TECHNIQUE

> The linkage between human needs and productivity is nothing new in Western management theory. It required the Japanese, however, to translate the idea into a successful reality [Ref. 59:21].

Hatvany and Pucik examined the affect of management practices in Japan on human resources. They suggest that these practices can be effective regardless of the significant cultural differences.

Their research effort included a comparative analysis between firms in Japan and Japanese subsidiaries in the U.S. They found that most observed personnel policies in the subsidiaries were similar to those in Japan with some differences noted in the evaluation systems and job-rotation planning. They also noted a less institutionalized concern for employee welfare due to the elaborate social welfare system of the U.S. They offer a model of Japanese management orientation, backed up by a well-integrated system of strategies and techniques that translate this abstract concept into reality. The reader will note the similarity to Ouchi's Theory Z organizations in Hatvany and Pucik's following model:

Paradigm	Strategies	Techniques
Concern for Human Resources	- Long term employment - Unique company philosophy - Integrating the employee	- Slow promotion - Complex appraisal system - Emphasis on work groups - Open communications - Consultive decision making - Concern for employee

First, long-term and secure employment is provided, which attracts employees of the desired quality and induces them to remain with the firm. Second, a company philosophy is articulated that shows concern for employee needs and stresses cooperation and teamwork in a unique environment. Third, close attention is given both to hiring people who will fit well with the particular company's values and to integrating employees into the company at all stages of their working life. The thrust of these strategies is aimed at enhancing quality-of-work-life (QWL). The QWL movement in the U.S. is epitomized by quality circles and involving nonmanagement employees in decision-making.

These general strategies are expressed in specific management techniques. Emphasis is placed on continuous development of employee skills; formal promotion is of secondary importance, at least during the early career stages. Employees are evaluated on a multitude of criteria, often including group performance results, rather than on individual bottom-line contributions. The work is structured in such a way that it may be carried out by groups operating with a great deal of autonomy. Open communication is encouraged, supported, and rewarded. Information about pending decisions is circulated to all concerned before the decisions are actually made. Active observable concern for each and every employee is expressed by supervisory personnel. Hatvany and Pucik maintain that each of these management practices, either alone or in combination with the others, is known to have a positive influence on commitment to the organization and its effectiveness. Like Locke's Theory V, this model emcompasses most of the elements of the other theories, suggesting a viable application to U.S. workforce. Both the Theory V and Japanese

Management Orientation models indicate that true concern for employees is a key strategy element for developing motivational techniques.

Incentive strategies as a technique for increasing motivation, are gaining popularity within the U.S. In a publicized debate, two psychologists, Blomgren and Walters, presented opposing views on whether providing incentives is a good idea [Ref. 61]. Blomgren said that the use and enjoyment of a gift remind a person of successful performance; that verbal reinforcers, job enrichment experiences and cash are quickly forgotten. He views awards themselves as the visible tip of the "motivational iceberg." He believes that an effective incentive program taps needs for achievement, competition, recognition and social affiliation. It also enriches jobs and adds enjoyment to the work environment. In this way, productive incentive programs tap a broad array of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators.

Walters' objective for any productivity improvement program is more long-range: to help people develop their compentence by giving them added responsibility, which is a psychological reinforcement. "It's a measure to them that they are growing." He recommends (in place of an incentive program) that jobs be redesigned so that people get satisfaction and competence feedback from their work.

In a test of the Incentive Theory, Korman and his colleagues conducted two studies (involving a survey of 850 civilian males, ages 16-22) of the impact of various recruiting incentives on enlistment motivation [Ref. 62]. In one, experimental incentives (not then in effect) were varied in absolute magnitude. In the other, the number of incentives made available to a prospect was varied.

The results of their study suggest that "more is sometimes worse," and offer several possible explanations:

1. Too large an incentive may lead to distrust ("It must be pretty bad if they are willing to pay such a big bonus. It's a trick").
2. There may be a perceived threat to freedom, coupled with anger at the institution. ("What are they trying to do? Take away my freedom of action? I can't be bought!")
3. A violation of what the individual perceives as fair and just. ("You shouldn't get so much money just for joining the Navy.")
4. Most teenage youths have had little experience in handling or making decisions involving large sums of money.

They warn management not to assume that to attract good employees or to motivate better performance, it is only necessary to determine at what price the offer "cannot be refused." There may be no effect except cost increases, and possibly a boomerang effect.

One of the most dramatic events of the 80's occurred when 11,500 air traffic controllers walked off their jobs. They were considered well paid with a variety of incentives relative to other professions with equal training. In researching this case, Bowers [Ref. 63] found that:

1. Organizational conditions were predominately negative. Morale was poor at almost all levels.
2. Organizational culture geared strongly toward Theory X beliefs collided with the collaborative values and expectations of a workforce of controllers...representing the younger generation.
3. Organizational conditions and management practices, together with their end-products of alienation, dissatisfaction, and stress, caused 11,500 separate individuals to decide to strike.

Bowers ended his article with the following words: "This article has attempted to analyze, in evidential form, events that triggered what can only be described as perhaps the greatest labor relations disaster in the history of modern public administration. It was at least several years in the making, and it will be at least that long in being repaired... It could have been prevented, had appropriate concerned persons sought accurate information. They did not, and it was not." The significant point is that management was not concerned for the employees. Considering the context of the organizational climate, no amount of monetary incentives would have motivated these employees. However, if individual and organizational goals had been more congruent this strike may never have been initiated.

Goal setting as a technique for increasing productivity has been around since the early days of management science when the goals were dictated by management. It was revitalized in the 60's under the heading of management by objectives (MBO) which involved an agreement between management and employees in contrast to a mandated decision. The concept of GOAL is not the most fundamental motivational concept; it does not provide an ultimate explanation of human action. The concepts of need and value are the more fundamental concepts and are what determines goals along with the individual's knowledge and premises [Ref. 64]. Goal setting is simply the most directly useful motivational approach in a managerial context, since goals are the most immediate regulators of human action and are more easily modified than values of subconscious premises [Ref. 65]. The impressive results obtained by Latham and others in increasing productivity through the use of goal setting in industrial settings testifies to the practical utility of this concept [Ref. 66].

Locke argues that goal setting is either implicity or explicity found in theories and approaches to employee motivation [Ref. 66]. From his research, he noted that one group of theories, Scientific Management and Management by Objectives (MBO), has explicitly recognized the importance of goal-setting in both theory and practice. A second group, Human Relations and Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) theory, denied the importance of goal-setting in earlier versions but acknowledged its importance, in both theory and practice, in later versions. The third group, Job Enrichment and Organizational Behavior Modification (Organization Development), has consistently refused to concede the relevance of goal setting in formal theoretical statements, but has acknowledged its importance implicitly by actually encouraging goal-setting when these theories are put into practice. (In actual practice, a results-oriented climate is in effect goal-setting.)

Locke summarized a long series of studies by Latham and his colleagues which found that participation in goal setting typically did not lead to greater goal commitment or performance than assigned goal setting. He suggests that self-set goals might be held more flexibly, because they are simply a matter of personal preference, while assigned goals, especially when assigned by an authority figure (professor, supervisor, etc.) are seen as being required by the situation [Ref. 67].

In a previous study [Ref. 68] where subjects were assigned goals ranging from easy to impossible on one trial and then allowed to choose their own goals on the next trial, subjects felt a high degree of freedom of choice on the latter trial and tended to choose harder goals if their earlier assigned goals had been easy. Conversely, they chose easier goals if previously assigned goals had been hard. He concluded that subjects were heavily influenced in their self-set goals by their previously assigned goals. He also found that personal goal, valence and commitment were significantly related to performance with commitment showing the strongest relationship [Ref. 69].

Goal setting is a simple, straightforward, and highly effective technique for motivating employee performance. It is a basic technique, a method on which most other methods depend for their motivational effectiveness. The currently popular technique of behavior modification, for example, is mainly goal setting plus feedback, dressed up in academic terminology.

However, goal setting is no panacea [Ref. 70]. It will not compensate for underpayment of employees or for poor managment. Used incorrectly, goal setting may cause rather than solve problems. If, for example, the goals set are unfair, arbitrary, or unreachable, dissatisfaction and poor performance may result. If difficult goals are set without proper quality controls, quantity may be achieved at the expense of quality. If pressure for immediate results is exerted without regard to how they are attained, short-term improvement may occur at the expense of long-run profits. That is, such pressure often triggers the use of expedient and ultimately costly methods (such as dishonesty, high-pressure tactics, postponing of maintenance expense) to attain immediate results. Furthermore, performance goals are more easily set in some areas than in others. It's all too easy, for example, to concentrate on setting readily measured production goals and ignore employee development goals. Like any other management tool, goal setting works only when combined with good managerial judgement, i.e., providing regular feedback on goal accomplishment.

A number of studies suggest that managerial evaluations of employees are in part a function of attributtional process [Ref. 71;72]. A 1981 study by Kipnis and colleagues [Ref. 73] provides evidence that employee evaluations are directly mediated by manager's perceptions of who is in control of the employee's performance - the employee or the manager.

Kipnis started this research by asking why democratic managers evaluate their employees more favorably than do autocratic managers. He concluded that the use of democratic forms of influence tactics, which provide employees with some freedom to decide for themselves encourages the belief among managers that employees are self motivated. Given average or better levels of performance, this belief leads to favorable evaluations. His results are based upon a laboratory simulation of leadership using college students which have, yet, to be validated in actual field settings.

A management consultant, Robert Ball, discussed the results of employee attitude surveys conducted by his firm in a 1978 article [Ref. 74]. The survey was designed to diagnose organizational strengths and weaknesses. They looked at a cross section of companies and organizations representing over 7,000 exempt, nonexempt and hourly employees. Concerning evaluations, the following three questions were asked (percentage range of "no" responses are in parenthesis):

1. Do you know the standards by which your supervisor evaluates your performance and the expected results? (32%-67%)
2. Do you feel your contribution and performance is measured fairly? (26%-58%)
3. Has your supervisor assisted you in evaluating your strengths and weaknesses for future performance improvement? (47%-56%)

For management to reduce the "no" responses and make their performance appraisal systems more effective, Ball recommends eight key steps:

1. DEVELOP A POSITIVE PERFORMANCE CLIMATE - The proper company philosophy must be communicated and enforced throughout the organization. It must be a sound philosophy that stimulates and reinforces productivity rather than activity: a philosophy that stresses individual contribution and accountability for results.
2. ORGANIZE FOR RESULTS - This is a results-oriented performance climate which is an organizational structure that establishes a logical chain-of-accountability: one that eliminates overlapping responsibility and duplication and reduces the number of management levels to the smallest number possible.

3. IDENTIFY ORGANIZATIONAL RESULTS OBJECTIVES - This establishes a clear understanding of the organization's goals and objectives. An important note is that managers be involved in the objectives development.
4. DEFINE JOB RESPONSIBILITY - This step is the development of concise and accurate position descriptions which clearly define the functional responsibilities, authority and, above all, accountability for managers and employees.
5. TRAIN MANAGERS - Development of a management training program will provide the participants with the insights, techniques, and skills necessary to develop results-oriented performance standards with their employees and to conduct performance appraisal interviews. The goals of this training would be to sharpen interpersonal skills and highten the understanding and commitment to the total results effort of the organization.
6. DEVELOP INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE STANDARDS - Each employee meets with his/her supervisor and develops a performance appraisal agreement. As these standards are being developed, the objectives of the company, division or department are closely studied. At the upper levels of management, objectives become, in effect, performance standards.

7. DEVELOP PERFORMANCE EVALUATION FORMS - The system of measurement and evaluation now becomes one of measuring the individual's attainment of the pre-determined performance standards.

8. RECOGNIZE RESULTS - Superior performance should be recognized through effective compensation and promotional programs. The performance appraisal system can be an integral part of the development of a positive, results-oriented, highly motivated, productive organization.

Ball maintains that these eight steps will result in a significantly improved level of employee motivation, team work and contribution. Productivity will increase along with real growth and innovation. This performance appraisal system must be a dynamic ongoing process between managers and employees. "Performance if evaluated only once per year will fail to produce the desired results" [Ref. 74:46].

Another motivational technique, "Quality Circles" is rapidly gaining popularity (within DoD) as a successful technique. It comes from the participative problem-solving strategy of the Japanese. Quality circles themselves consist of from five to ten volunteer employees who meet on a regular basis one to two hours a week. The employees are normally from the same work area and undertake the task of identifying, analyzing and solving problems. A rational, scientific approach is used in the problem solving process.

The quality circle program is revolutionary in that it allows the individual employee to initiate and participate in the decision making process which affects his or her working environment [Ref. 75].

The circle members are led by a team leader who in many cases is their first line supervisor. In addition, a facilitator trains and then works with each group to help resolve internal problems and to act as a bridge between the circle and top management. The circle members can work on one or more specific projects that pertain to situations within their work environment.

The two jobs that are critical to the success of the quality circle are those of the circle leader and the facilitator. The facilitator is responsible for a broad range of activities that enable the program to function. It is, therefore, important that the individuals assuming this role understand the responsibilities associated with the position and become proficient in quality circle problem-solving techniques.

Each of the previously discussed techniques derive from results of behavioral science research. The discussion that follows concerns a strategy of matching behavioral with management science techniques for productivity enhancement.

Effective use of behavioral science (B.S.) facilitates the development of a motivated workforce, which in turn contributes to making the environment more predictable [Ref. 76].

Management science (M.S.) helps managers and their subordinates to get their work done more efficiently, through use of mathematical applications.[1] It also allows managers to give subordinates regular and frequent feedback for achieving goals, and the motivation that comes from successful performance stimulates continued perserverence. But for behavioral and management science techniques to be effective, their application must vary with the work environment.

Alton and Babcock developed two models to help managers understand how to use behavioral science, the "soft science", and management science, the "hard science". The first model relates to two sciences to level of productivity and appears somewhat akin to the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid.

RELATIONSHIP OF B.S. AND M.S. TO LEVEL OF PRODUCTIVITY

USE OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCE TECHNIQUES (M.S.)

Low B.S. High M.S. Variable Productivity	High B.S. High M.S. High Productivity
Minimum Productivity Low B.S. Low M.S.	Low Productivity High B.S. Low M.S.

USE OF BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE TECHNIQUES (B.S.)

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[1] For a thorough discussion of Management Science techniques, see E. Turbin and J.R. Meredith, Fundamentals of Management Science, Business Publications, Inc., Texas, 1981 or any other management science text.

They note that although the model reflects the ideal match in the top right quadrant, all quadrants can yield high productivity in an appropriate environment. According to this model, high productivity is achieved by matching behavioral and managment science techniques. It also shows that it is possible to achieve high productivity (at least for a certain period of time) with low behavioral science and high management science.

The second model reflects the relationship of the environment to the use of behavioral and management science tools.

RELATIONSHIP OF THE ENVIRONEMT TO THE USE OF B.S. AND M.S.

Level of System	Exterior Environment	Technology	Techniques	
			Management Science	Behavior Science
High	-Complex -Dynamic -Uncertain	-Short production -Multiple products -Batch production	-Queing theory -Dynamic programming -Economic order quantity	-Participative MBO -Behavioral modification -Participative leadership -Network communication
High	-Simple -Stable -Certain	-Long production runs -Single/few products -Mass production	-Sequencing theory -Linear programs -Economic order quantity	-Less participation MBO -Behavior modification -Consultative leadership -Up and down communication
Low	-Varies	-Varies	-Budgets -Production schedules -Production planning	-Fair discipline -Written rules -Defined standards

With high-level systems, the environments facing the production department can be divided into two categories, as defined by the exterior environment and the firm's technology. In environments characterized by complex, dynamic, and uncertain exterior environments and technologies that have short production runs, multiple products, and batch production, these exterior and internal conditions facing the firm dictate using advanced techniques for efficient operation. In environments characterized by simple, stable, and certain exterior environments and technologies that have long production runs, single or few products, and mass production, the correct match includes a different set of behavioral and management science tools. For example, dynamic programming is appropriate for the former, while linear programming is more suited to the latter. In this second category, using the more advanced techniques represents an "overkill" and an unnecessary cost.

With low-level systems, the match consists of basic management science tools with basic behavioral science concepts and tools. The task in a low-level system is to develop a basic management/people system rather than to refine and develop a system that is already in place.

Alton and Babcock concluded that by matching the behavioral and management science techniques appropriate to each environment, it is possible to improve productivity and sustain growth.

C. PRACTICE/PROGRAMS

During the 1970's a General Motors (GM) assembly plant in Tarrytown, NY was infamous for having one of the worst labor-relations and poorest quality records at GM [Ref. 77]. The turnaround at Tarrytown grew out of the realization by local management and union representatives that inefficiencies and industrial strife threatened the plant's continued operation.

The setting for the initiative could hardly have been more dismal. The plant suffered 7% absenteeism, 2000 outstanding employee grievances, sloppy work, rapidly rising dealer complaints, and an unprecedented number of disciplinary and dismissal notices.

With the aid of an expert consultant in innovation and productivity, Tarrytown instituted a quality circles program, opened the lines of communication between the workers and management, and realized a drastic reduction in the percentage of bad weldings from 35% to 1.5% in the first few months. Other benefits mounted between 1976 and 1980. The plant now turns out high-quality products. They had only 30 outstanding grievances and a 2.5% absentee rate. Disciplinary orders, firings, worker turnover, and breakage all reflected significant declines. The clear lesson from Tarrytown is that both management and workers can cooperate to their mutual advantage to boost workforce motivation and increase productivity.

The New York Stock Exchange (NYSE) conducted a study of the differences between Japanese-owned and managed businesses with similar American-owned and managed businesses in the U.S. (both service and manufacturing) [Ref. 78]. The findings suggest that Japanese managers pay more attention than their U.S. counterparts to decision making, employee job security, worker well-being generally and product quality. The report indicated that American firms are realizing the importance of product quality for productivity enhancement, but cited the unions as an obstacle in other areas. The report concluded that although the above factors reflect a style of management that is Japanese, these attributes serve as a reminder which makes for good management, Japanese, American or otherwise.

In another NYSE study, a survey was conducted of 49,000 U.S. corporations, employing 41 million people (55% of all private nonagricultural employment) [Ref. 57]. This study was the first broad-based survey of human resource programs to boost productivity, with special emphasis on worker participation and other facets of the Quality-of-Work-Life movement. The major survey findings are as follows:

1. Only one in seven companies with one hundred or more employees had some kind of program.
2. The one in seven, however, account for just over half of all corporate employees in the U.S.
3. In companies with programs, typically 60% of the employees are involved in some facet of the program - some 13 million workers in all. This 13 million accounts for less than one third of the 41 million people currently employed in corporations with one hundred or more employees.
4. The larger the company, the more likely it is to have a program.

5. The driving force behind human resource programs is to increase competitiveness by improving productivity and cutting costs.
6. Many companies report a "change in management philosophy." Their new outlook on labor relations seems linked to favorable reports about the benefits of QWL.
7. Quality circles are spreading, particularly among manufacturing firms and large companies: Two-thirds of companies with 5000 or more employees include them in their programs.
8. Companies report that their efforts are successful in: increasing productivity, raising morale, reducing costs, improving service, raising product quality, and reducing employee turnover, absenteeism, lateness, and grievances.
9. Managements consider participative management a significant long-run approach to raising productivity and not a passing fad.
10. Companies typically measure their productivity in a formal way. The largest productivity improvement from QWL was reported by the smaller companies, the group with the lowest incidence of such programs.

The potential for improving national productivity through human resource programs remains large since:

1. Most companies have not yet adopted programs.
2. Existing programs are limited and 40% of employees that have them are not covered.
3. Human resource programs have major effects on productivity growth and improve employee attitudes and morale.

Barron H. Harvey, assistant professor at the School of Business Administration at Georgetown University, recently conducted a survey of middle managers in the federal government and found that one of their primary problems is motivating themselves and their subordinates [Ref. 79]. This motivational problem, he says, is particularly acute in the public sector, where many of the motivational techniques used by private industry (such as promotion, salary increase, and other rewards) are limited.

Harvey asked 256 federal middle managers who were attending management training sessions in Atlanta, Philadelphia, and Washington, D.C. to identify the problems they most frequently encountered on the job. Fifty-two of the respondents said that managing subordinates who have reached the top of their career ladder or who are approaching retirement age (a group known as dead-enders) was their biggest problem. Particular concerns voiced by the managers about dead-enders were:

1. How to motivate older employees who have more time on the job than the boss.

2. How to motivate someone near retirement to accept training and additional responsibility.
3. How to motivate an employee who cannot be promoted or fired.
4. How to motivate older employees to support new organizational goals and changes.

The second most common problem was a lack of personal motivation felt by the managers themselves. Employee lack of motivation in general was the third most frequently cited problem by the managers. Specifically, the managers wanted to know:

1. How to motivate employees to maximum capacity.
2. How to motivate employees who dislike the task at hand.
3. How to motivate a group of subordinates with different career goals and aspirations.
4. How to motivate employees who are already working hard due to staff shortages.

According to Harvey, only one of the ten program categories offered by the federal government for middle managers, improving overall performance, deals with motivation. However, he believes that federal middle managers are clearly concerned with the problem of motivation, but their concern is not being adequately addressed by current government-sponsored training programs.

Harvey believes that the problem of motivating federal employees in general and dead-enders in particular has received little attention in human resources circles. He recommends that the current literature on organizational and industrial psychology and employee motivation be tapped for motivational techniques that can be specifically geared to the needs of the federal government. He suggests that the government can:

1. Make the employee's personal objectives more compatible with those of the particular government agency.
2. Create alternate career paths so that dead-enders can be shifted to other jobs where advancement is possible.
3. Enrich the job by redesigning it.
4. Expand the job to encompass new or added responsibilities with new learning requirements.
5. Provide more cash and status awards for good performance.

Harvey believes that one or more of these suggestions might be useful in various situations involving federal employees suffering from low motivation.

In a recent article in the Defense Management Journal, Anthony DeMarco discussed three major strategies for workforce motivation within DoD [Ref. 80]. The first strategy, job enrichment involves developing jobs that increase worker responsibilities which allows them to satisfy their need for self-fulfillment and at the same time reach their maximum level of performance.

According to Mr. DeMarco, 1500 quality circles have been instituted within DoD since 1979 which constitutes the second strategy. These circles have "generated both tangible and intangible improvements in both worker morale and productivity." He maintains that tangible results, judged on a broad scale of return on investment in training and time devoted to problem-solving, ranged from $4 to $28 for each $1 invested. He includes a greater sense of dedication and job satisfaction in the intangible benefits.

The third motivational strategy, performance-based incentive systems, is in an experimental stage, but showing considerable promise. Though still in its infancy period, this program has proven successful for the Long Beach Naval Shipyard in California and other Naval facilities; the Army's Missile Command, Depot Command, and Armament, Munitions and Chemical Command; and at the Air Force's McClelland Air Logistics Center in California [Ref. 80]. It appears that the total effort of the motivational strategies is to improve QWL within DoD.

The Army is currently investigating approaches to increase productivity and improve QWL at Corpus Christi Army Depot using a "Sociotechnical Systems Evaluation Program (STEP)." STEP is broadly defined as the process of expanding the responsibility of rank and file employees. It assumes people want to work together in common purpose and challenges the sharp distinction between the actual work of producing goods or services and the planning and coordination of that work. One of their objectives is to provide summative evaluations which describe changes in productivity and QWL that are consequences of the impact of STEP on the organization [Ref. 81].

D. SUMMARY

The preceding discussions suggested a variety of techniques and approaches for understanding and improving workforce motivation in organizations. Redesigning jobs, changing incentive systems, giving individuals greater influence over their careers, and more fully involving employees in decision-making are jsut a few of the solutions proposed. But why should managers and workers in organizations want to create these kind of changes? If they do not want to change, can any changes in the workforce motivation take place? How, for example, can the need for change be stimulated by events either internal or external to the organization? What might these events be and what social forces are required to activate them? If change is desired by people within some organizations, how can it be effected in a successful manner? Finally, what will cause these changes to be adopted by other organizations?

These are just a few of the questions to be considered when thinking about large scale changes in workforce motivation. They raise the prospect that change will be difficult to achieve. Experience indicates that perfectly good solutions often go unused because of resistance to change by individuals, groups, social institutions. It is likely that innovations and improvements in workforce will meet similar resistance.

This is because improvements in workforce motivation mean changes in organizational practices, which in turn require workers and managers to modify long held attitudes, behaviors, and values.

Fortunately, there is a growing body of knowledge about the process by which change occurs. Most of the knowledge about organizational change stems from observations of actual attempts, both successful and unsuccessful, to create change within organizations. Successful change follows a specific pattern of events, and there exists a body of knowledge and social technology that make it possible to plan and direct those events. The field of organization development (OD) is perhaps the most notable example of our expanding knowledge and social technology of change [Ref. 44].

V. CONCLUSIONS

Action is the beginning of everything. In business as in every other human activity, nothing of consequence happens until an individual wants to act. What one accomplishes depends to a considerable extent on how much, and on why, one wants to act. That much is obvious; beyond that point the nature of human motivation becomes complex and subtle.

All people have purposes which affect the way they work. This is why there has been a growing volume of research by social scientists on the motives of people at work. This research itself has many motives. It began with a wave of humanitarianism in industry in the late 1920s. Since World War II it has been spurred by an interest in increasing productivity. More recently the field has attracted students and consultants who consider companies and organizations worthy objects of study in their own right.

This thesis has had three main purposes thus far: to draw together the most significant achievements in the study of work motivation; to present contemporary theories that put most of this research into a single, understandable perspective; and, to show practical applications of all this theory and research for management policy. Because of the volume of research on motivation, to have presented even a summary of each was not feasible, nor desirable. Rather, it was necessary to pick and choose among the many that have a generic application, and to attempt to explain their relevance.

Ever since Hawthorne, researchers and theorists have been tracing the many ways in which workers are affected by their managers. There is no longer much doubt that an individual worker's motivation, or lack of it, is at least partially the result of the actions or attitudes of the people who direct the work. It is clear that worker motivation is affected by attitudes and actions of the individual, many of which have roots in one's pre-employment history, including childhood. The motivating environment is a continual interplay between how an organization is managed and the personal motivations of the individual. This relationship produces long-term motivational trends as well as momentary ups and downs.

There is no shortage of ideas for the practising manager who investigates current thinking relevant to workforce motivation. There are many different ideas, theories, and models. Deciding which (Theory Y, Theory V, Reinforcement Theory, Job Redesign, etc.) is correct or true would be frustrating. A model is neither correct nor true - only more or less useful. It is an abstraction and can be useful if it helps to predict the results of a change, to analyse and solve problems, and is not too complicated for practical application.

The examples of practice and programs presented in the previous sections are but a few of the many in the literature. The techniques discussed represent contemporary consensus of workable applications for positively affecting workforce motivation. The connecting links for these programs are recognizing and meeting the worker's needs and values. The main link is reinforcing the behaviors deemed appropriate by the collective opinions of the workforce and the organization. People are called "motivated" when they actually do what they can do to achieve management objectives. They become motivated when their work behavior is reinforced. More specifically they become motivated when desired work behavior is followed by reinforcement and undesirable work behavior is not followed by reinforcement.

The Department of Defense can facilitate improving workforce motivation without involving itself deeply or widely in the operations of employing agencies. Simply advancing the knowledge about workforce motivation and the means to improve it, and disseminating this information, is a strategy that can function in isolation or in conjunction with other DoD approaches.

Three general forms of strategy deserve consideration:

1. DoD can create or sponsor model motivation programs. Other employing agencies can then observe and imitate them.
2. DoD can generate new information through sponsoring research to evaluate current workforce motivation change efforts, to develop understanding of the change process, and to identify emerging workforce motivation issues.

3. DoD can direct agencies/components to establish an information clearing-house for disseminating existing information to subordinate levels.

A. DEVELOPING MODELS

The approach of developing model organizations is a market strategy for change. Model organizations should be sufficiently successful in improving workforce motivation for productivity enhancement so that other organizations will imitate them in adopting innovations. Many organizations that are ready to innovate need models as a guide to action.

However, this strategy must be combined with other actions. In isolation it resembles the research and development approach to change in assuming that awareness of an innovation leads to its adoption. The world is not likely to beat a path to a successful technique for improving workforce motivation. An organization that sees no need for such improvements will not adopt any changes, even if those changes have improved motivation and productivity elsewhere. Some other factors must first pressure many organizations to make them want to undertake change.

DoD can expand the strategy of developing workforce motivation models in two areas. First, DoD can fund additional demonstration projects with emphasis on developing internal change resources using consultants in organization development. This would increase the probability of continued change beyond the initial demonstration project. Second, new demonstration projects should maximize the involvement of those affected by the change program in the design of its evaluation. Although this suggestion would sacrifice some objectivity in the evaluation, it focuses evaluation on dimensions critical to local participants and may increase use of the evaluation in a continuous change process.

B. GENERATING NEW INFORMATION

Innovation requires research and the development of new knowledge. DoD should support gathering new information of two quite different types.

1. Fundamental research is still required on workforce motivational issues. For example, we need to better understand the negative physical and psychological consequences of poorly-designed work (for example, mental illness, stress, etc.), and the effects of particular organizational practices such as repetitive work. A high priority for new research is coordinated evaluation of current attempts at workforce motivation improvements. These attempts should not remain unrelated experiments. Coordinated evaluation of them could help build a theory of change that specifies the particular change strategy most appropriate to different organizational situations and different workforce motivation improvements.

2. Continuous monitoring of workforce motivation in this and other societies is also required to indicate the extent of the national motivation problem, its change over time, and the distribution of attitudes relevant to it within the different segments of the workforce. Regular monitoring of employee reactions to work and their motivational outcomes can focus policy toward the most critical segments of the workforce. Such surveys also provide data on the fundamental motivational research issues described above.

As a change strategy, gathering new information depends heavily on the groups (agencies, military departments) to utilize the information in efforts to improve workforce motivation. But it will both encourage reality in the claims of motivation advocates and guide DoD to focus its change efforts on particular organizations or segments of the workforce that are experiencing particularly severe problems.

C. DISSEMINATING INFORMATION

Playing a proponent role for information clearing-houses, DoD should actively monitor the gathering and disseminating of existing information on workforce motivation experiments and innovations initiated by organizations throughout the country. In order to disseminate this information, the clearing-houses should: (1) provide motivation information on request, (2) attract media attention to new developments, or (3) insure a workforce motivation network through newsletters and/or regular meetings.

Congress has provided limited support for this strategy within the broader charter of the National Center on Productivity and Work Quality. This center is publishing evaluations of quality of work life (and motivation) innovations undertaken by employers. Such publications, conferences, and other activities provide information on workforce motivation innovations to labor and management across the country.

Information dissemination is a minimal government strategy to facilitate improving workforce motivation. It will help those organizations who are motivated and ready, but will do nothing to stimulate change in organizations not motivated to improve workforce motivation.

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The examples of practice and programs presented in the previous sections are but a few of the many in the literature. The techniques discussed represent contemporary consensus of research to evaluate current workforce motivation change efforts, to develop understanding of the change process, and to identify emerging workforce motivation issues.

demonstration projects with emphasis on developing internal change resources using consultants in organization development. This would increase the probability of continued change beyond change strategy most appropriate to different organizational situations and different workforce motivation improvements.